

The School-to-Prison Pipeline among Black American Boys in Central Ohio:
The Influence of Childhood Trauma

Thesis

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Bachelor of Science in Social Work
in the College of Social Work at The Ohio State University

By
Cariah J. Cox
Undergraduate Program in Social Work

The Ohio State University
2020

Thesis Advisor:
Dr. Alan K. Davis

Copyright by
Cariah Cox
2021

Table of Contents/ List of Tables

Abstract.....	3
Dedication.....	5
Acknowledgements.....	6
Curriculum Vitae.....	7

Section 1 – Research Project

Statement of Research.....	8
Summary of the Literature.....	10
Current Study.....	22
Methods.....	23
Results.....	26
Discussion.....	31

Section 2 – Social Impact Project

Introductions.....	35
Methods.....	37
Results.....	39
Discussion.....	41

Tables

Table 1.....	42
Table 2.....	45
Table 3.....	47
Table 4.....	48
Table 5.....	49
Table 6.....	50
Table 7.....	52
Table 8.....	53
Table 9.....	55
Table 10	56
Table 11.....	57

References.....	60
-----------------	----

Abstract

Introduction: Studies indicate that Black-American boys overpopulate the Juvenile Justice System (JJS). This overpopulation is a result of the school-to-prison pipeline; a national trend where children are transferred out of public schools into the JJS. This study expands upon the school-to-prison pipeline literature by examining if childhood trauma, measured using the Adverse Childhood Experiences Questionnaire (ACEs; Possible range 0-10; higher scores = more trauma), is a contributing factor leading Black-American boys into the school-to-prison pipeline. *Methods:* A mixed method cross-sectional design was used to collect data on Black American ex-juvenile male offenders in central Ohio ($n=67$; mean age=25.7, $SD=4.0$). *Aims:* 1) examine whether the number of ACEs were associated with the age that Black-American juveniles became involved in the JJS, the number of years incarcerated, or the frequency of school discipline (expulsion/suspension) began; 2) explore if the school security and discipline measures within the schools of Black-American boys in Central Ohio schools; 3) explore perspectives regarding what is needed to deter Black-American juveniles' entry into the school-to-prison pipeline in central Ohio schools; and 4) investigate the racial composition of teachers and cultural factors related to the school environment of Black-American boys when they engaged in the JJS. *Results:* Participants' mean age of adjudication was 13.1($SD=2.6$) and the mean ACEs score was 6.1 ($SD=4.0$). Regarding Aim 1, there was no statistically significant relationship between ACE scores and the age juveniles encountered the JJS ($r= -.10$; $p=0.203$). There was a marginally significant relationship between ACE scores and the length of sentencing ($r = .019$; $p = .057$)., Regarding Aim 2, a positive relationship between ACE scores and frequency of suspension was found ($r=.29$; $p=0.035$), showing that the more childhood trauma experienced in the sample, the more times they were suspended as an adolescent. Additionally,

82% of participants were suspended more than once. Next, findings revealed that increased levels of school security impacted school discipline and racial inequities. Specifically, a significant positive relationship was found between police officers being present in their school and number of times they were suspended/expelled ($r=.24$; $p=.027$). Another positive relationship was revealed between metal detectors being present in their school and wrongdoing suspiciousness because of race ($r=.32$; $p=.004$). Moreover, there was a significant negative relationship between ACEs scores and the school security measure, security guards ($r = -.37$; $p = .001$); meaning presence of school security guards was associated with lower ACEs scores. The disciplines related to each level of security shows that the more militant the security, the more severe the consequence (i.e., school discipline, racial inequalities) and report of more ACEs. Regarding Aim 3, exploration of racial compositions of teachers revealed a positive correlation between being subjected to unfair treatment from a teacher because of race and being suspected of wrong because of race ($r=0.34$, $p=0.003$). Regarding Aim 4, participants reported wanting family love (36%) and opportunities assisting with academic/professional career goals (26%) during adolescence. *Conclusion:* The findings from this study indicate that increased trauma is positively correlated with increased school discipline measures such as metal detectors and police officers being present within school buildings compared to security guards. Given these findings, school administrators should consider having a guidance counselor or social worker evaluate trauma history and the needs of a child prior to resorting to disciplinary actions. Future research is needed to design better education interventions addressing the needs of Black-American boys prior to taking disciplinary actions, with a focus on helping them cope with childhood trauma.

Dedication

I would like to dedicate this to all Black American boys in the state of Ohio aspiring to achieve greatness, especially my five younger Black American brothers. This underserve population is worthy of someone who will never give up on them. Which is why I would also like to dedicate this to educators, school social workers, diversion counselors, and other staff members who are committed to assisting Black American boys daily. Without these professionals' Black American boys would continuously be trapped in generational curses regarding the education and the juvenile justice system.

Acknowledgements

I would like to first acknowledge my faculty advisor Alan K. Davis for his guidance and support with the utmost gratitude. He has been more than willing, to not only help me with all aspect of this project but advancing my career in the field of Social Work. I would also like to acknowledge the College of Social Work, especially Jennie Babcock. Jennie has encouraged me every step of the way, both professionally and personally, from assisting me with refining my area of interest to being available for ample check-in meetings. In addition, I would like to acknowledge my family for their unconditional love and motivation along with my friends for all the late-night work sessions that aided me in completing this project. Lastly but not least, I would like to thank The Department of Social Change along with all the Black men who volunteered their time to educate the young men during the #We M.O.B One-Day Summit as well all that attended the summit; your participation and engagement was appreciated.

Curriculum Vitae

June 2nd, 2017.....Clark Montessori Jr.& Sr. High School

May 9th, 2020.....B.S. Social Work, Honors with Research Distinction,

Cum laude, The Ohio State University

Fields of study

Major Field: Social Work

Statement of Research Topic

This study examined whether childhood trauma (e.g., adverse childhood experiences) was associated with factors related to the school-to-prison pipeline among Black American boys in central Ohio. The school-to-prison pipeline describes a national trend where children are transferred out of public schools and into the juvenile and criminal justice systems. The relationship between childhood trauma and the school-to-prison pipeline has yet to be established within this vulnerable population. Therefore, this study examined whether childhood trauma was associated with the transit/journey from school to prison. This study has the potential to increase understanding of this critical issue and results from this study were used to design and implement a one-day virtual social impact summit targeting at-risk young Black American boys in central Ohio.

Problem Statement

Until the United States (US) Juvenile Court Act of 1899, a Black American under the age of 18 (i.e., a juvenile) who committed a crime was convicted under adult laws (History of Juvenile Delinquency, 2017). Since then, the Juvenile Court System has over criminalized Black youth; making the criminalization of Black Americans an ongoing systematic issue (History of Juvenile Delinquency, 2017). For example, Black American juveniles are more than four times as likely to be placed within the Juvenile Court System than their white peers (The Sentencing Project, 2017). Furthermore, in several states (i.e., New Hampshire, New Jersey, Connecticut, Wisconsin, and Rhode Island) the Black American to white racial incarceration disparity ratios are as high as 10 to 1 (The Sentencing Project, 2017). Thus, deterring Black American juveniles from delinquency would be beneficial to decrease the overincarceration of Black Americans.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore whether childhood trauma is related to delinquent pathways among Black American boys within central Ohio. Specifically, the first aim was to examine whether the number of ACEs were associated with the age that Black American juveniles became involved in the JJS, the number of years incarcerated, or the age that school discipline (expulsion/suspension) began. The second aim was to explore if the school security and discipline measures within the schools of Black American boys in Central Ohio schools. The third aim was to explore perspectives regarding what is needed to deter Black American juveniles' entry into the school-to-prison pipeline in central Ohio schools. The fourth aim was to investigate the racial composition of teachers and cultural factors related to the school environment of Black American boys when they engaged in the JJS. The data from this project was formulated into a social impact #We M.O.B – Motivating our Brothers one-day virtual summit for Black American Boys within central Ohio.

Population

The target audience studied were ex-juvenile Black American male offenders within central Ohio who were adjudicated under the age of 18.

Research Project

Summary of the Literature

Juvenile Court System History

The first Juvenile Court System was a formal product of the Child-Saving Movement in 1899, in Cook County (Chicago), Illinois (History of Juvenile Delinquency, 2017). The Juvenile Court system acted in loco parentis meaning the institution took on the temporary responsibilities of a parent for the juveniles they encountered in the absence of such supervision by the juvenile's birth parent(s) (West's Encyclopedia of American Law, 2008). The Juvenile Court System was comprised of distinct laws from adult courts. Juvenile Judges enacted these laws by a guiding principle of rehabilitation rather than the adult court punitive approach (Mallett & Tedor, 2018). Language used within the Juvenile Court System varied to help create a rehabilitating environment. For example, juveniles were given delinquencies rather than charges and were found adjudicated delinquents rather than guilty (National Research Council and Institute of Medicine, 2001).

By 1925, 46 of the existing 48 states had established rehabilitation facilities (e.g., juvenile or specialized courts) for adolescent children (Mallett & Tedor, 2018). With the creation of so many Juvenile Court Systems the founding philosophy to save, redeem, protect, and rehabilitate juveniles had become exalted. Rehabilitation facilities had become overcrowded and underfunded, making correctional facilities the primary place to house adjudicated delinquents. In fact, juvenile correction facilities quadrupled its population from 100,000 adjudicated delinquents in 1920, to 400,000 in 1960 (Mallett & Tedor, 2018). As facilities began to grow in size, low-income and minority youth lived in unsustainable housing without any rehabilitation services or proper medical care (Mallett & Tedor, 2018). Obvious racial disparities within the JJS gave juveniles who

were formally involved with juvenile courts the rights to due process (Mallett & Tedor, 2018). Due process was intended to provide juveniles with equal rights in court, however, it caused the system to transform its act of loco parentis to parens patriae (Mallett & Tedor, 2018). According to the West's Encyclopedia of American Law, “Parens patriae is a doctrine that grants the inherent power and authority of the state to protect persons who are legally unable to act on their own behalf” (West's Encyclopedia of American Law, 2008, p. 1). The act of parens patriae initiated supervision expansions amongst juveniles, leading to harsher punishments (Mallett & Tedor, 2018).

Beginning in the 1960s, significant changes were made within the JJS, driven by three primary forces: “1) a stronger federal government role in juvenile cases including minor offenses (e.g., truancy issues and child welfare concerns), 2) state reformation and depopulating the overcrowded juvenile incarceration facilities, and 3) U.S. Supreme Court decisions establishing juvenile offenders’ rights in juvenile proceedings” (Mallett & Tedor, 2018, Chapter 2). As juvenile courts shifted further away from the original philosophy of rehabilitation, the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 was passed to fund selected juvenile court programs (Public Law No. 93-415, 1974). The Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 provided funding for institutions with the following stipulations: 1) juveniles are maintained separate from adults in local jails, 2) removal of juveniles from the adult criminal justice system unless they were charged and transferred as adults, and 3) juvenile status offenders (e.g., offenders who commit crimes that are social problems such as disobeying parents and running away) were to be removed from adult institutions (Public Law No. 93-415, 1974).

The Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 intended to protect juveniles from entering the adult criminal justice system. However, this was unsuccessful because juveniles

were given almost no rights while being convicted and housed in adult institutions which sparked the 1967 Supreme Court's Gault Decision (United States Court, 1967). The Gault Decision intended to balance juvenile court powers by providing juveniles legal protection due to a high volume of adolescents being prosecuted using the "Get Tough" and "Adult crime, Adult time" philosophy shifting the JJS philosophy from rehabilitation to retribution (United States Court, 1967).

The "Get Tough" and "Adult crime, Adult time" philosophy established policies and laws throughout the 1980's and 1990's under the misbelief that "nothing works" to rehabilitate juvenile delinquents (Mallett & Tedor, 2018). During this time, juvenile delinquency was rising dramatically (up 64% from 1985-1993) with juvenile arrests for robbery, forcible rape, aggravated assault, and murder on the rise (Fagan & Wilkinson, 1998). Homicide was the most violent crime within urban neighborhoods starting in the 1980s; Black American males made up the majority of both homicide offenders and victims embodying black on black crime (Blumstein, 1995). With an increased accessibility of handguns, Black American males were obtaining handguns to kill one another inducing fear which caused many young Black American boys to create and join gangs for protection (Blumstein, 1995). With Black American boys at the forefront of crime, the JJS went from intervention and support to retribution and harsh accountability allowing the JJS to reduce crime by 67% in one decade; however Black Americans were still incarcerated at higher rates than whites (Fox, 1996).

Currently, the JJS has made extreme efforts in reforming juvenile's back into a system that abides by the rehabilitation philosophy decreasing delinquency. For example, in the 2003-2013 Sentencing Project, the JJS was able to decrease the rate of adjudicated delinquents by 47% (The Sentencing Project, 2017). However, the racial gap between whites and Black Americans increased

by 15% making Black Americans far more likely to be incarcerated within a correctional facility following adjudication. In addition, the Sentencing Project study found that Black American juveniles were more than four times as likely compared to whites to secure placement within a correctional facility arranged by the JJS (The Sentencing Project, 2017).

School-to-Prison Pipeline

The school-to-prison pipeline refers to the policies and procedures that encourage police presence in education/school buildings (Elias, 2013). These procedures include “harsh tactics such as physical restraints, and automatic punishments that result in suspensions and out-of-class time (Elias, 2013, para 7).” The school-to-prison pipeline procedures are a direct consequence of the zero-tolerance act, a policy that schools use to enforce mandated disciplinary consequences (Children’s Defense Fund Ohio, 2018). The zero-tolerance act was originally initiated to combat weapons and drug possession on school grounds and has expanded to requiring mandated consequences for behaviors (e.g., hitting another student) committed while in school disregarding any rationale (Edelman, 2007).

Students who are impoverished, maltreated, a part of the lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer or questioning (LGBTQ) community, of color, and/or have a special education disability are all disproportionately filtered into the school-to-prison pipeline (Mallet, 2017). There is emphasis on people of color and students with disabilities represented in the school-to-prison pipeline as 18% of the nation’s public-school students are Black American, but approximately 40% of students expelled from public schools are Black (Lynch, 2017). In addition, Black children with a disability are suspended approximately 1 in 4 times compared to the 1 in 11 white students with disabilities (Elias, 2013). In short, school disciplinary practices criminalize children who are already considerably vulnerable.

To combat the school-to-prison pipeline some counties engage in school-based teen courts (SBTCs) intervention programming. SBTCs is a program that youth can participate in after disobeying a school rule so long as they are willing to admit their guilt (Bacallao et al., 2020). One county that adopted this programming received short-term success with allotting youth the opportunity to address the harm they had done and engage youth with services within the school community (Bacallao et al., 2020). On-Campus Intervention Programming (OCIP) is another intervention used to rehabilitate youth who display challenging behaviors in a school setting through counseling and supportive services (Bucchio & Cheek, 2017). Students who engage in OCIP reportedly have decreased disciplinary referrals and improved behavior (Bucchio & Cheek, 2017).

School-to-Prison Pipeline Disciplines

According to the U.S Department of Education, during the 2013-2014 academic year Black students represented 15.5% of the national student population and 1.1 million of the 2.8 million of the K-12 out of school suspension (U.S Department of Education, 2016). Furthermore, “Black males represent 8% of all students, but 19% of students expelled without educational services” (U.S Department of Education, 2016, p. 3). Mandatorily reported offenses are relatively rare, 3% of all school-based offenses, compared to the 97% of non-mandatory reported offenses that are reported including: disrespect, affray, disruptive behavior, and communications threat (Bradshaw, McCarter, & Venkitasubramanian, 2019). In the study conducted by Bradshaw, McCarter, and Venkitasubramanian (2019), using the Sheriff office data to access justice system involvement, “Black students are 1.26 times more likely to have higher count of felonies than white students (p. 6).” Further, the same study found that males were 3.4 times more likely to have higher count of felonies than whites (Bradshaw, McCarter, & Venkitasubramanian, 8). Therefore, the

intersectionality of being Black and male puts a double target on Black boys backs for punitive punishment.

School-to-Prison Pipeline and Education Systems including Teachers

The education system utilizes school buildings to provide education to students; however, with increased racialized ideologies and practices, it has become a place that mimics a prison system, thus feeding into the school-to-prison pipeline. Black boys internalize submissive processes daily as they “walk in the halls in silence, hands behind their back, fingers pressed against their lips, and eyes allows facing forward” (Lee, 2016, p. 4). Furthermore, public schools, especially those in urban neighborhood, consist of overcrowded classrooms with security guards aiding to the prison-like environment (Anyon et al, 2018). In addition to security guards’ schools have also integrated security measures such as surveillance cameras, metal detectors, police officers, that invade privacy and induce fear (Farmer, 2010).

The attitudes of teachers towards Black males is a crucial part of institutionalized racism in the education system. According to Grace and Nelson (2019), two critical factors associated with Black males’ success are high expectations and caring teacher-student relationships. “Seven out of ten of the study participants believed that their teachers had poor perceptions of Black boys” causing an imbalance amongst teacher-student relationships (Grace & Nelson 2018, p. 674). In this study, poor perceptions are the inferior mental impressions that teachers use to interpret Black boys’ behaviors. The participants expressed that their teachers had poor perceptions such as, “A lot of teachers feel like [Black males] won’t be anything,” and “They think oh he African American, he probably come from a bad school or low-income school” (Grace & Nelson, 2018, p. 674). Poor teacher perceptions had a negative impact on Black boys’ school experience and outcomes, whereas more affirmative teacher perceptions had a positive impact on Black males’

school experience and outcomes. Furthermore, an overwhelming number of white female teachers, the vast majority of educators, are often intimidated by the presence of Black boys in and beyond the classroom (Bryan, 2017). Due to teachers exhibiting an inferior stand to Black boys, Black boys are disproportionately targeted, labeled, and dehumanized by their teachers in school settings. Black boys are targeted as early as Kindergarten, in 2017 19% of the Kindergarten population was Black Boys; however, they made up 48-50% of the suspensions and expulsions at this level (Bryan, 2017). When teachers do the following, sit Black boys in close proximity, give less instruction, less time to answer a question prior to moving on, and demand less work, intergenerational racism is learned (Bryan, 2017). In these instances, deficit messages, biases, and stereotypes are passed down from school professionals to white students resulting in Black boys being the victims of microaggressions (Bryan, 2017).

When Black boys do not perceive their teachers to be nurturing individuals, Black boys find it difficult to fully engage and report poor self-efficacy regarding their academic ability. To combat the disconnect, it is recommended that teachers create welcoming environments based off social and emotional development that include students of color, as many Black students have the probability of being the product of communities battling poverty, violence, and trauma (Lee, 2016). A social and emotional research approach suggest addressing conflict resolution through, 1) practices that are innovative (peer mediation, peer juries, peace circles), 2) restorative justice plans, and 3) positive social functioning skills (Lee, 2016). This is the suggested approach to help students of color identify and develop self-regulation skills, maintain and cultivate healthy relationships, and make students feel valued. On a micro level, teachers can adapt to the social and emotional approach by increasing their awareness on the following topics: implicit biases, race-conscious educational practice, trauma, relationship building with students by attending

professional trainings (Anyon et al, 2018). Furthermore, teachers can consider the voices of Black families when making decisions for the K-12 education system (Bryan, 2017); it is important for Black voices to be unsilenced to provide them more autonomy over their children education. To enact the social and emotional approach on a macro level policy maker of on all levels must address the inequitable discipline practices, relationship dynamics, and culture inclusivity within the education system beyond their face value (Anyon et al, 2018).

School-to-Prison Pipeline in Ohio

The public-schools in Ohio typically suspend students on two major accounts, fighting and disruptive behavior. For example, during the 2013-2014 academic year, the Ohio Department of Education reported that there were 270,680 Black students enrolled in Ohio schools, however 55,645 were suspended for disruptive behavior (ACLU, 2015). Additionally, a more recent study found that 16% of Ohio's public-school enrolled students were Black American however, Black Americans also made up over 50% of Ohio's public-school suspensions and expulsions (Evan, 2019). Furthermore, Black American boys living in Ohio are five times as likely to be suspended and/or expelled compared to the national statistic of Black American Boys being three times as likely to be suspended and/or expelled (The African American Policy Forum, 2011). In addition, the school-to-prison pipeline appears to start as early as pre-school, wherein Black Americans are 10 times more likely to be suspended than their white peers (Children's Defense Fund Ohio, 2018). Furthermore, during the 2016-2017 academic year the Columbus School District issued 24,000 school suspensions with 18,288 being Black American Students; 76.6% of Black American students were reportedly suspended because of disobedient or disruptive behaviors (Children's Defense Fund Ohio, 2018).

In addition, the school-to-prison pipeline in Ohio leads to harsher consequences compared to the national average. In a study of over 26,000 US middle and high school students during the 2009-2010 academic year, one in every nine secondary school students was suspended at least once with approximately 512 court referrals processed (Losen & Martinez, 2013). Furthermore, one in six Black American K-12 students in this study were suspended at least once (Children Defense Fund Ohio, 2009). During the 2009 academic year Ohio made approximately 649 referrals to the juvenile court; of the 649 referrals, Black American students accounted for 86% of the referrals despite accounting for only 45% of Ohio's student population (Children Defense Fund Ohio, 2009). Truancy is the largest driver of youth contact within Ohio courts (Ohio Organization Collaborative, 2020). When a student is suspended, regardless of whether it is in school suspension or out of school suspension, the student is more prone to expulsion, dropping out, and holding occupancy in the JJS creating an ongoing cycle of recidivism (Ohio Organization Collaborative, 2020).

School-to-Prison Pipeline Interventions for Youth

Due to evidence supporting that Black American youth, in specific Black males, are disproportionately at risk for being thrust into the school-to-prison pipeline, interventions have been developed to help divert this trajectory. "The Movement" is an intervention program implemented for Black American boys in Rocketship Nashville Northeast Elementary. The program provides tutoring, exercises, and discussion regarding what it means to be a Black male in the world today (Evans, 2019). Every morning the boys connect while eating a bowl of Cocoa Puffs (a name brand cereal that most of the boys cannot afford), making the cereal an incentive to interact (Evans, 2019). The program had success, as the boys involved who had previously regularly disrupting their classrooms and demanding disproportionate amounts of attention from

school leaders, began to report feeling seen, understood, and in control of their destinies (Evans, 2019). Rocketship Nashville Northeast Elementary also transitioned the teaching staff by increasing the number of Black American teachers to 75% to project a mirror reflection for Black students (Evans, 2019). The mirror reflection of Black American teachers provided an opportunity for the Black American boys to begin picturing opportunities beyond their view as their academic performance and behavior improved; thus, those that had previously disrupted the classroom become positive leaders for the school culture (Evans, 2019).

Another school-to-prison pipeline intervention are diversion programs, which aim to educate disruptive children without removing them from the education system (Bornstein, 2011). For example, the Children's Home in Cincinnati Ohio was initiated to help combat the following statistics regarding Ohio State Prison inmates, the average inmate has a 10th-grade education, 70% lack a high school diploma, 88% live in challenging neighborhoods, and nearly 60% are dealing with mental health issues (Hinton, 2019). This diversion program provides children the opportunity to work with therapists and educators one-on-one, in small groups, and in large group settings (The Enquirer, 2019). The program administrators report that their students achieve remarkable things once having the opportunity to work with a therapist and be educated, reporting that, "Many of the high school students advanced grade levels in math last year, preschoolers learned age-appropriate skills and behaviors, 80% of the students showed significant improvement in social and classroom behavior and last year all of our students eligible for a high school diploma earned one, and 172 students received hands-on job readiness training (Hinton, 2019, para.13)."

Both interventions, The Movement and The Children's Home of Cincinnati Diversion Program implemented skills training with Black children to decrease the impact of the school-to-

prison pipeline. However, neither program explored nor seemed to address the potential influence of childhood trauma in this population. Examining childhood trauma and its influence in leading Black American boys to prison could fill in fundamental gaps to understanding the school-to-prison pipeline in central Ohio.

Childhood Trauma/ACE's

Although programs have emerged to help Black youth at risk for entering the school-to-prison pipeline, more could be studied to address factors that might predispose Black youth to be at risk in the first place. One example of an understudied area is the influence of childhood trauma on the school-to-prison pipeline. Childhood trauma is a significant predictor of violent/nonviolent crime and status offenses (Burton & Kang, 2014). Childhood trauma can be measured using the ACEs questionnaire which calculates accumulated traumatic events to predict later outcomes in one's life. The ten traumatic experiences that are measured within the ACE's questionnaire are: "emotional abuse, sexual abuse, emotional neglect, physical neglect, violent treatment towards mother, household substance abuse, household mental illness, parental separation or divorce, and having an incarcerated household member" (Tilson, 2018, p. 166). If a child is exposed to *one* of the above ACEs, their ACE score becomes one. The more exposed a child is to the varying ACEs their score accumulates to 10. ACEs were introduced between 1995-1997 by the center for disease control and prevention and Kaiser Permanente health care organization study (Center for Disease Control and Prevention, 2019). In this study they discovered that ACEs are quite common around the world, 67% of the studied population experienced at least one ACEs (Murphy & Sacks, 2018). Juvenile delinquents are an important population to study childhood trauma as their ACE test results reflect high scores (more trauma exposure). In one study, Black American Juveniles were twice as likely to experience two or more ACEs than their white counterparts (Baglivio, M. T., et

al, 2014). Moreover, in a more recent study examining incarcerated Black Americans, 4 or more traumatic childhood experiences were reported by 70% of the study participants (Jackson, Jaggi, Mezuk & Watkins, 2017). Within this same study maltreatment was endured by 1 in 5 Black American children compared to 1 in 10 white children (Jackson, Jaggi, Mezuk & Watkins, 2017).

Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACE's) Data in Central Ohio

For children growing up in Ohio, the transformative strategies, early learning and healthy development, have been proposed as most important to increase the life-long success and economic prosperity (Groundwork Ohio, 2018). Currently, nearly half (46%) of Ohio's children have experienced childhood trauma causing Ohio to be ranked 46th in the nation for kids with high levels of early childhood trauma (Groundwork Ohio, 2018). Furthermore, 61% of Black American children in Ohio have experienced an ACE, in comparison to 40% of white children experiencing an ACE. (Groundwork Ohio, 2018). Ohio ACE scores have been higher than the nations average for the past 4 years with Ohio having three main leading ACE events (economic hardship, parent or guardian divorce or separation, and parent or guardian in jail) (United Health Foundation, 2020). In 2016, 25.8% of Ohioan youth experienced two or more ACE events while 22.6% youth nationally experienced two or more ACE events (United Health Foundation, 2020). As of 2019, both Ohio (25.1%) and The US (20.5%) youth ACE scores have decreased; however, the gap between the two displays a 1.4% increase since 2015 (United Health Foundation, 2020). Research shows Black American children in Ohio experience more ACE events than the national average and endure harsher school consequences such as juvenile court referrals increasing the likelihood of the school-to-prison pipeline; however, there is no research analyzing the correlation between childhood trauma and the School-to-Prison pipeline.

Current Study

This study examined if childhood trauma was a contributing factor for leading Black American Boys to the School-to-Prison pipeline in Ohio. There were four aims that were examined throughout this study. The first aim was to examine whether the number of ACEs were associated with the age that Black American juveniles became involved in the JJS, the number of years incarcerated, or the age that school discipline (expulsion/suspension) began. The second aim was to explore if the school security and discipline measures within the schools of Black American boys in Central Ohio schools. The third aim was to explore perspectives regarding what is needed to deter Black American juveniles' entry into the school-to-prison pipeline in central Ohio schools. The fourth aim was to investigate the racial composition of teachers and cultural factors related to the school environment of Black American boys when they engaged in the JJS.

Methods

Research Design

For this study I used a Mixed Method Cross Sectional Design. This study design was chosen because it allowed for collection and analysis of primary source information on a vulnerable and difficult to reach population in Central Ohio. Primary source information was collected on ex juvenile offenders using a secure Qualtrics questionnaire asking a variety of questions, both closed and open, regarding childhood demographics and behavior, factors that led to delinquency, and potential implementations to help younger generations.

Data Collection Procedures

Data was collected online through the social media handle, Facebook, using two approaches: snowball sampling and direct advertising.

Participant Recruitment

Following the institution review board approval at Ohio State University, an advertisement was posted on Facebook. The advertisement made note of the participant requirements (i.e., at least 18 years of age, sex is male, Black American, and was an adjudicated delinquent), the incentive (a \$10 amazon gift card that will be sent via email) and included a link to the study survey. Participants were able to stop participating in the survey at any point; however, completion of the entire survey was required to receive a \$10 award.

Participants

Participant's informed consent was obtained on the first page of each survey using an unsigned online consent document. When beginning the survey, participants were asked a series of screening questions to ensure they were a good fit. Specifically, participants had to answer "yes" to the following, are you older than eighteen, is your sex male, do you identify as Black

American, and must answer “under 18” to the question about what age did you come in contact with the JJS, to proceed to the survey. All participants met the inclusion criteria including, being 18 years of age, was an adjudicated delinquent (incarcerated under the age of 18) in central Ohio and identify as Black American male. After completing the survey, participants were asked to provide their name and email address to receive their \$10 amazon electronic gift card. A total of 67 individuals completed the survey and were used in the analyses. Recruitment occurred between August and September 2020.

Measures

The survey was created to address three primary measures: transit, practices, and needs. Transit in this study is defined as “Childhood trauma” as it is a potential factor that influences the initiation of the school-to-prison pipeline among Black American boys. Practices are defined as the measures in place to prevent harsh punishments provided within central Ohio school system. Needs are the recommendations provided by participants to reduce delinquency amongst Black American juveniles.

Demographics

The survey included 10 basic demographic questions (e.g., Do you identify as a Male?, What is the highest degree or level of education you have completed?, How would you define your legal guardian(s) growing up (age 0-17)?)

Adverse Childhood Experience Study (ACEs)

The survey included the ACE’s questionnaire which asks participants to answer “Yes” (coded 1) or “No” (coded 0) to 10 questions regarding events (Tilson, 2018). (e.g., Did a parent or other adult in the household often or very often... Swear at you, insult you, put you down, or humiliate you? or Act in a way that made you afraid that you might be physically hurt? that

occurred in their life prior to being 18. If the participant answers Yes to a question, their score is one. As the questionnaire continues participants ACE scores accumulate to 10.)

School-to-prison Pipeline

The survey included 12 questions regarding participants' school population, behavior, feelings, and practices. (e.g., What ethnicity was the majority of students in your schools growing up? Did you have an Individualized Education Plan or IEP?)

Needs

The survey included 10 questions about participants' beliefs about their childhood and to provide recommendations on how to better assist current juvenile delinquents. (e.g., What is one thing that you wanted as a child but never had? How can family members help young men not get involved in the JJS?)

Personal Experience

The survey included 5 questions asking participants about their personal experiences and relationships ratings using a 5-point scale from "strongly disagree" (coded as 1) to "Strongly agree" (coded as 5). (e.g., Who supported you while you were involved in the JJS? (select all that apply), How would you define your relationship with teachers?)

Data Analysis

To analysis the data we utilized two different tables, descriptive and correlation. The descriptive tables were used to examine demographics. The correlation tables were used to examine relationships between study variables. The approaching statistically significant levels were as follow: $p < .10$, $**p < .05$, $***p < .01$, $****p < .001$. $P < .05$ showed statistical significance while $p < .01$ showed marginal significance.

Results

Participant Characteristics

As shown in Table 1, the sample was all African American, Black, and/or Black American males above the age of 18 years old at the time of the survey. Ages of participants ranged from age 18 to 28; the mean age was 25.67 (standard deviation [SD] = 4.02). The range of adjudication ages was 8-17 with 25% reporting being adjudicated at 15 with a mean age of 13.07 (SD = 2.55). Survey participants reported adjudication in a variety of cities in Ohio (e.g., Columbus, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Dayton, Akron, Toledo, Canton, Youngstown, Findley, Zanesville, Lorain, Chillicothe, Westerville, Wooster, Beavercreek, Reynoldsburg, Circleville, Gahanna, New Albany, Worthington), however the top four cities that the survey participants reported being adjudicated in were Findlay (13%), Columbus (10%), Cincinnati (9%), and Zanesville (9%). Participants reported that their primary legal guardian was a biological parent (54%), adopted parent (19%), stepparent (19%), or an older sibling (3%). The majority (52%) of the survey participants reported having two parents in the home, while 7% reported no parents in the home. Also, at the time of adjudication, 51% of the survey participants reported being employed.

At the time of survey, survey participants reported a variety of education attainments with 27% reporting some high school and 26% reporting having either an associate's, bachelor's or master's degree. In addition, the majority (76%) of the survey participants reported that they were employed at the time of the survey. Furthermore, 10% of the survey participants reported being either part-time or full-time students, 12% reported they were seeking opportunities, and 1% reported being disabled or on disability. Moreover, the majority (54%) of the survey participants reported they did not have any children. Lastly, Table 6 indicates that 27% of the

survey participants were sentenced to 6 months or less for their juvenile offense, 32% were sentenced to 1 year, 29% were sentenced to 2 years, 6% were sentenced to 3 years, 3% were sentenced to 4 years and 2% were sentenced to Juvenile life (until the age of 21).

Summary of Adverse Childhood Experience (ACEs) in the Sample

Each individual ACEs question is used to calculate a total ACEs Score. Table 2 reveals a 4.4 median ($SD=2.36$) ACEs score in this sample. Table 2 also reveals that the most often reported ACE was “Did a parent or other adult in the household often or very often... Push, grab, slap, or throw something at you? or Ever hit you so hard that you had marks or were injured?” (68%). The following ACEs were also reported by the majority of the survey participants: “Did you often or very often feel that ... No one in your family loved you or thought you were important or special? or Your family didn’t look out for each other, feel close to each other, or support each other?” (60%), “Did you often or very often feel that ... You didn’t have enough to eat, had to wear dirty clothes, and had no one to protect you? or Your parents were too drunk or high to take care of you or take you to the doctor if you needed it?” (54%) and “Were your parents ever separated or divorced?” (51%). Furthermore, Table 3 reveals that the least common reported ACE was “Was a household member depressed or mentally ill, or did a household member attempt suicide?” (25%). Moreover, Table 4, reveals a range of each ACEs score with the highest number of participants, 15 having an ACEs score of 2 while the least number of participants, 1, had an ACEs score of 10. Table 4 also indicates that the mean ACEs score in the sample was 6.09 ($SD=3.98$).

Aim 1: Associations between ACEs and JJS Involvement

To explore if ACE scores were associated with the age in which Black American boys became involved in the JJS, their number of years incarcerated, or the age that discipline began, I

calculated Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients to evaluate the relationships between ACE scores and the age in which the Black American boys encountered the JJS. Examination of Table 5 reveals no statistically significant relationship between ACE scores and the age when Black American boys encountered the JJS ($r = -.10$; $p = 0.203$). In addition, Table 6 indicated that most (32%) of survey participants were sentenced to 1-year for adjudicated offense. Furthermore, table 5 reveals a marginally statistically significant relationship between ACE scores and the length of incarceration ($r = .019$; $p = .057$). Additionally, Table 7 shows a significant positive relationship between ACE scores and frequency of suspension revealing that the higher Black American boys score on the ACEs assessment the greater the suspension frequency ($r = .29$; $p = 0.035$).

Aim 2: School Discipline Measures & Security

Secondly, I explored the school discipline measures (suspension/expulsion) and security within the schools of the participants in this study. Table 8 indicates that 60% of the survey participants had been suspended and/or expelled. Of those suspended and/or expelled, 82% reported that they had been suspended more than one time. In addition, more than half (53%) of the survey participants reported that they were suspended for the first time during middle school (7th and 8th grade). Furthermore, participants reported that the following security measures were utilized within their school: security guards (61%), police officers (48%) and metal detectors (19%). The data revealed a significant positive relationship between police officers and being suspended and/or expelled ($r = .237$; $p = .027$, showing that reports of police officers being present in their schools was associated with ever being suspended. In addition, another positive relationship was revealed between metal detectors and wrongdoing suspiciousness because of race ($r = .318$; $p = .004$), showing that the presence of metal detectors in their schools was

associated with being suspected of wrongdoing because of race. Moreover, there was a significant negative relationship between ACEs scores and the presence of security guards ($r = -.37$; $p = .001$); meaning presence of school security guards in their school was associated with lower ACEs scores. Therefore, increased levels of security (up to including police officers on campus) is associated with harsher disciplinary actions.

Aim 3: Racial Composition of Teachers and Cultural Factors in School Environments

Thirdly, I examined the racial composition of teachers and cultural factors related to the school environment of participants. Table 8 shows the diverse racial compositions of teachers within the participants schools; (31%) African American teachers, (21%) Latino or Hispanic teachers, (19%) Caucasian teachers, (13%) Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islanders, and (8%) others. Table 8 also indicated that 33% of the survey participants reported they had been mistreated by teachers due to race. Next, I calculated Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients to evaluate the relationship between these variables, perceived unfair treatment, and race. Examination of Table 9 reveals significant positive correlations between being subjected to unfair treatment from a teacher because of race with both being suspected of wrong because of race ($r = 0.34$, $p = 0.003$).

Aim 4: The Needs to Deter Entry into the School-to-Prison Pipeline.

To discover the needs to deter Black American boys from JJS entry, I asked ex-adjudicated male juvenile offenders to answer two open-ended questions. The first question asked participants to provide information regarding how the education system can help young Black men not become involved in the JJS; 47 of the 60 survey participants responded to this question. Most responses to this question included themes representing three domains: 1) freedom and equality (34% of participants, e.g., freedom, equal treatment, fair play, protection, you can't control teenagers, no

racial discrimination, all are equal), 2) education (28% of participants, e.g., learn about legal knowledge, study hard, provide more education, learn to stay away from illegal activities), 3) care (19% of participants, e.g., care more, give more attention, support through emotion). Fewer responses involve were centered around the education system providing more communication (13% of participants, e.g., exchange ideas more often, emotional communication, communicate constantly), and Rewards/Punishment (6% of participants, e.g., incentive base help, let them realize the cost of breaking the law). Altogether, the ex-juvenile offenders in this study highlighted a variety of important responses they consider are the needs to deter Black American Boys entry into the JJS.

The second questioned asked participants to list one thing that they wanted as a child but never had. There were 60 survey participants, however 47 responded to this question. Most responses to this question revolved around the theme family love (36% of participants, e.g., parental love, dream is to have a cozy family, family reunion, my own family, warmth). Fewer responses involved participants academic/professional career (26% of participants, e.g., be a doctor, go to college, get into a good university, good academic performance, inventing an invisibility cloak) and monetary desires (13% of participants, e.g., own a computer, become rich, want toys I like). There were also participants that did not adequately answer the question (23%; e.g., stealing from other people, being bullied, raped by bad guys, robbery, beaten up by a classmate).

Discussion Section

The main findings from this study showed that there was a positive correlation between number of childhood traumatic experiences and suspension frequency. Data also indicated that more than half of the survey participants had been suspended and/or expelled in school with more than two thirds being suspended more than once. Secondly, increased levels of security (up to police officers being present on school grounds) is associated with higher levels of disciplines. When security is kept a minimum militant, Black American boys endure less trauma given there was a significant negative relationship displayed among ACE scores and security guards. Next, in examining racial composition of teachers and school environments a positive correlation between being subjected to unfair treatment from a teacher because of race with both being suspected of wrong because of race. Lastly, to combat the influence of trauma on the school-to-prison-pipeline it has been suggested by the survey participants that Black boys be given family love (36%) and opportunities to assist with academic/professional career goals (26%) as children. It was also suggested that the education system provide freedom/equality (34%), education (28%), and care (19%) to Black boys to prevent involvement in the JJS. Lastly, the study indicated a strong correlation between ACE's scores and Black young men obtaining mentors.

The results of the current study were consistent with findings from The Children's Defense Fund Ohio (2018) report that the Zero Tolerance Act was responsible for initiating disciplines, and with the study conducted by Evan (2019) resulted in Black Americans students making up over 50% of Ohio's public-school suspensions and enrollments. Specifically, the findings from the present study indicate that 60% of the survey participants had been suspended and/or expelled. Furthermore, the United Health Foundation (2020) reported that in 2019, the

likelihood of experiencing two or more ACE's were higher in Ohio (25.1%) than the U.S (20.5%); which was a 1.4% increase from the 2015 gap between Ohio (24.8%) and the U.S (22.6%). In addition, the Jackson, Jaggi, Mezuk, and Watkins (2017) study examining incarcerated Black Americans reported 70% of its participants experiencing 4 or more traumatic experiences. This is generally consistent with the findings from the current study wherein the ACE's score median was 4.4 and 67% of participants reported experiencing 4 or more ACE's. The United Health Foundation (2020) stated that Ohio had three leading ACE's: economic hardship, parent or guardian divorce or separation, and parent or guardian in jail. This current study was similar wherein participants most often reported two of the three leading ACE's (e.g., economic hardship and parent or guardian divorce or separation). Taken together, these findings illustrate that Black American boys in Ohio reported being suspended and/or expelled while also reporting a high number of traumatic childhood experiences. Ultimately, the state of Ohio needs to evaluate ways to enact change for youth experiencing these specific traumatic events in hopes of decreasing Ohio's relatively high ACEs reports.

This study is differentiated from previous studies on this topic in several ways. For example, Lynch (2017) suggested that Black Americans endure increased disciplines from school paraprofessionals due to "misunderstanding" of normalized behaviors and means of communication for Black American families that is not passable for school environments, causing Black American youth to feel mistreated. The present study illustrated that 33% of students felt mistreated by their teachers due to race. Surprisingly, 60% of the survey participants reported that their teacher instilled hope in their future while 51% of their teachers also encouraged college and/or trade school. This inconsistency with other research is possibly due to the survey participants reporting that most (31%) of their teachers were African American

compared to all other races, possibly decreasing the likelihood of misunderstanding and the Black American boys' beliefs and attitudes regarding school discipline measures.

The current study has several limitations that could have impacted the results. First, the survey was conducted using Facebook advertisements, thus illustrating a methodical limitation. Specifically, the survey was only accessible to those who had obtained both an email address and Facebook account. Therefore, the criteria needed to access this survey may have excluded those without access to technology resources or who are currently incarcerated, thus affecting the generalizability of the findings. Secondly, the sample was small, which calls into question the representativeness of this study. The sample size could have also very well impacted the teacher race reports therefore not representing the overall race of teachers in Ohio education system. Thirdly, the survey required individuals to self-report their beliefs and experiences. With self-reporting comes potential biases, and it is possible that the participants were not completely honest. For example, participants could have chosen a more socially acceptable answer to a survey question rather than being frank. Furthermore, the incentives offered could have caused some participants to participate more than once or to lie in order to gain entrance into the study, especially if they had access to another email address to receive another \$10 gift card. Next, the participants may not accurately represent the population at hand as the survey participants were ex-juvenile offenders. The recollection of their memory could have been poor and/or their JJS experience could have been different due to a different time period. Lastly, there was some missing data due to some participants not answering all of the questions.

The findings from this study indicate that increased trauma is positively correlated with increased school discipline measures such as metal detectors and police officers being present within school buildings compared to security guards. Given these findings, guiding counselors

and/or school social workers should consider evaluating the needs of a child prior to resorting them for disciplinary actions. Disciplinary actions may not only result in Black boys missing out on their education but spending more time in homes where neglect and abuse may be happening. Furthermore, school educators should increase their cultural competency about behaviors that indicate neglect and abuse so that children can receive the assistance they need. Disciplinary practices conducted by both the education system and JJS has disproportionately over criminalized Black American boys. It's time the village, the education system and JJS, deter from discipline and address the influence that trauma has on Black American boy's behavior, providing them the opportunity to obtain proper assistance. Black American boys deserve to have mentors leading them on pathways to be doctors, scientist and governors, not delinquents.

Social Impact Project

Introduction

Summit Interventions

According to The New Dictionary of Cultural Literacy, Third Edition (2000) a summit meeting is “a meeting or conference of heads of state, especially to conduct diplomatic negotiations and ease international tensions, including top-level officials, executive (para. 1).” To date, there has been no known publicized summits conducted in Ohio with an aim to empower Black boys. Outside of Ohio, the first African American Summit was held in North Carolina in 2015 serving over 100 males (Adkins, 2015). This summit was initiated with a goal to help African American males and others overcome stereotypes associated with young Black males, rally the community together to positively uplift African American males, and provide others the understanding of perception (Adkins, 2015). On a larger scale, the 5th Black Male Summit at The University of Central Oklahoma (UCO) was conducted by the UCO’s Office of Diversity and Inclusion in 2019. The summit theme was K.O.D to represent the following counternarratives, Kings of Destiny, Knowledge Over Destiny and Keys of Development (Black Male Summit set at UCO, 2019). The mission of this summit was to, “...address the historical, cultural and relevant challenges that affect the development of young, Black males; build connections between UCO and public and private high schools across the state; and encourage the pursuit of obtaining a postsecondary degree (Black Male Summit set at UCO, 2019, para 1).” To achieve the summit’s goals presenters discussed the following topics: masculinity, policing practices, the school-to-prison pipeline, education, hip-hop, sports, social justice, voting/politics, and educational resources (Black Male Summit set at UCO, 2019, para 3). Nearly \$6,000 of scholarship money was awarded to Black males during the summit as an incentive for Black

Males to show up and engage with the content (Black Male Summit set at UCO, 2019). The effectiveness of these particular one-day summits have yet to be evaluated. However, according to The Journal of Youth Development who evaluate Community Youth Summit, one-day summits are best when they are implemented in safe places, have effective educational conversations, utilize experimental activities to engage participants, and host pre-summits to properly collect data for conveying the message to the targeted audience (McKyer, Smith & Outley, 2010)

Ohio State University Summit for Black Youth

The #We (M.O.B) Motivating our Brothers One Day Virtual Summit was initiated in notability of completing the requirements for The College of Social Work Honors: Social Impact Project Pathway. The We M.O.B summit was designed to instill hope, inform, and transform young Black American Males in central Ohio to live desirable lifestyles deterring from delinquency acts. Specifically, the research thesis was conducted on the topic; “The School-to-Prison Pipeline among Black American Young Men in Central Ohio: The Influence of Childhood Trauma,” yielding the following program topics: “positive life trajectories”, “motivational niche”, and “what is law?”. Thus, the We M.O.B summit was formulated based upon this thesis research. The We M.O.B summit emphasized individualistic perception as no young men participating in the summit have endured the exact same life pathways and/or trauma; therefore, each young attendee was expected to take away their own key points from the summit. The four aims for The We M.O.B summit were: 1) Instill hope for young Black American men in becoming the best them, for themselves on their journey of life, 2) Inform young Black American boys of positive life trajectories with emphasis on education, 3) Provide Black American boys tools to find culturally specific outlets to become internally motivated with

emphasis on coping with trauma, and 4) Bring awareness to common juvenile delinquencies that Black American boys are adjudicated with and their corresponding consequence with emphasis on obeying authority,

Methods

Program Logistics

The We M.O.B summit was conducted on February 15th, 2020 from 11am-1pm (eastern time zone) virtually over the “Zoom” platform.

Program Participants

The We M.O.B summit was coordinated by Cariah Cox in collaboration with and funded by The Department of Social Change. The We M.O.B summit included the following guest speakers: Terry “nunnie” Green, Dr. James L. Moore, Dr. Tony Anderson, and Attorney David Fletcher. The targeted audience was Black American High Schoolers in the state of Ohio; however, The We M.O.B summit not only gained attendance from Black American High schoolers but obtained attendance from college students of color and staff and faculty of The Ohio State University.

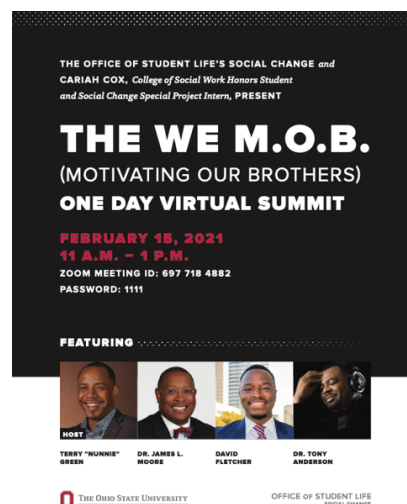
One-Day Agenda

Time	Speaker	Topic
10:50-11:05	Login	Music was Playing
11:05	Playon	Performed a Poem
11:10	Cariah	Formal Introduction of the program (including the pre/posttest survey)
11:15	Terry “nunnie” Green (Host)	Opened up the submit by sharing his homeless and juvenile involvement, and current activism. Expressed importance of overcoming adversity and standing united together.
11: 35	Host	Introduced Dr. Moore
11: 35	Dr. James Lee Moore	Positive Life Trajectories – The session discussed positive life trajectories with emphasis on education and leadership

11:50	Host	Introduced The young Black Men Panel including OSU students and alumni
11:50	Maurice, Joe, Sly	Break Out Conversations
12:10	Host	Introduced Attorney David Fletcher
12:15	Dr. Tony Anderson	“Motivational Niche”– discussed the myths of men’s emotional vulnerability and provided different coping mechanisms
12:30	Host	2 Trivia Questions for e-visa gift cards
12:35	Attorney David Fletcher	What is the law? – The session gave a brief overview of the law with emphasis on common mistakes young Black males make. In addition, it explained the importance’s of obeying the law due to the corresponding consequences that transpire when one does not
12:50	Host	Final words of motivation.
12:55	Cariah	Final thank you to contributors and attendees. Give out pre/posttest e-visa gift cards

Advertisement

The following flyer was posted at the University and shared on Facebook and Instagram. In addition, the flyer was shared with The Ohio State’s Universities Office of Diversity and Inclusion, The Department of Social Change, The Multicultural Center, The Young Scholar’s Program and The College of Social Work to be shared with their e-mail and social media networks. Lastly, the flyer was shared with some High schools around Ohio.



Data Collection Process

Data was collected to measure the outcomes of the summit through a pretest that was administered at the beginning, and a posttest that was administered at the conclusion, of The We M.O.B summit. All attendees met the inclusion criteria, identify as a Black American male and currently enrolled in a High school within central Ohio. Both the pretest and posttest questions were created directly from the targeted aims. One random attendee was selected after the completion of the pretest and posttest to receive a \$25 e-visa gift card.

Results

The We M.O.B summit was attended by 54 individuals; 26 Black American male high school students, 15 college students, all Black American males other than two females and 13 female staff and faculty of The Ohio State University of multiple races/ethnicities. All 26 of the Black American high school attendees who participated in the pre and post-test agreed that they would recommend The We M.O.B one-day virtual summit to their friends. The pre-test survey asked participants, “Do you agree or disagree with the following statement: I have positive influence(s) in my life.” The participants answers were as follow: agree (15.38), neither disagree nor agree (65.38%), and disagree (19.23%). In addressing the first aim, the following question asked whether attendees “...agree or disagree with the following statement: I have autonomy over my own life.” During the pretest 64% of the survey participants agreed with the statement whereas, 73% had agreed with the statement on the posttest (see Table 11). The second aim was to inform young Black American boys of positive life trajectories with emphasis on education. Results from the attendee survey showed that there was approximately a 15% increase from the pretest (55%) to the posttest (69%) in attendees’ rates of hopefulness in graduating High school without getting in trouble (see Table 11).

The following questions were asked to evaluate the third aim, “Do you agree or disagree with the following statement: Black Males can display their vulnerable emotions in society today” and “Do you agree or disagree with the following statement: I have good coping outlets to deal with my emotions.” When evaluating the rates of agreement with these statements, one-half (50%) of the attendees disagreed prior to the summit, meaning they did not agree that Black males are able to display vulnerable emotions in society today, whereas only 20% had disagreed following the summit. Similarly, before the summit 32% disagreed with having good coping outlets whereas 0% disagreed with the statement following the summit. The fourth aim was measured using the following questions: Do you agree or disagree with the following statement: “I obey those of authority at school, home, and the community” and “I am knowledgeable of common laws that impact juveniles.” Table 11 reveals there was very little change in rates of agreement with these items from before to after the summit. However, whereas some (38%) of the attendees disagreed that they were knowledgeable on common laws that impact juveniles, most (53%) of the attendees reported that they felt knowledgeable on common laws that impact juvenile after the summit was over. In conclusion, when asked which session the High school Black-American boys enjoyed the most, the sessions were in closed proximity however most (40%) stated that they enjoyed the “What is Law” session most due to knowledge they gained.

Discussion

According to results of The We M.O.B virtual summit, I will provide evidence-based recommendations on how society can better serve Black American boys. Due to nearly 85% of survey participants reporting that they disagreed or neither agreed nor disagreed with having a positive influence present in their life, more long-term mentor groups need to be accessible to Black American boys that are geared towards aiding youth on positive life trajectories.

Secondly, due to the increased amount of Black American boys feeling empowered to finished high school without getting in trouble after the summit, I believe educators and all staff within education buildings should be required to attend trainings that emphasis Black American boy learning styles, behavioral norms, and ways to uplift and instill internal motivation. I believe this will be a good implementation as during Dr. Moore's session he made an emphasis on how Black boys learn differently than their counterparts while giving the boys affirmations to motivate them on their life journey. Next, mental health awareness needs to be advocated for in the Black community. Black American boys deserve to feel they can be vulnerable and be made aware of ways to surpass anger, trauma, etc. Lastly, going forward I believe local communities, especially those populated with a high volume of Black-American youth, should host neighborhood town hall meetings to engage the youth in conversations regarding law and authority. Although right and wrong may be common sense enhanced knowledge is awareness and can potentially deviate the next Black-American boy from entering the school-to-prison pipeline. Ultimately, I would love to see The We M.O.B One-Day Virtual Summit expand to reach a larger audience. The summit was indeed transformational to the sample it served; therefore, I am sure that it can motivate many other Black American boys within Columbus, Ohio, and even Nationally.

Tables

Table 1
Demographic Characteristics

Characteristics:	N=67 M(SD) or %
Age	
18+	100%
Age at the time of adjudicated	13.07 (2.55)
8	7%
9	4%
10	5%
11	10%
12	15%
13	6%
14	13%
15	25%
16	6%
17	7%
Age at the time of survey	25.67(4.02)
18	1%
20	9%
21	4%
22	6%
23	9%
24	10%
25	13%
26	6%
27	13%
28	7%
29	4%
30	4%
31	3%
32	1%
34	3%
36	1%
38	1%
Sex	
Male	100%
Race	
African American, Black, and/or Black American	100%
City of Adjudication	
Columbus – 1	10%
Cincinnati – 2	9%
Cleveland – 3	4%
Dayton – 4	1%
Akron – 5	6%
Toledo – 6	1%

Canton -7	3%
Youngstown – 8	1%
Findley – 9	13%
Zanesville – 10	9%
Lorain — 11	6%
Chillicothe – 12	4%
Westerville– 13	3%
Wooster– 14	4%
Beavercreek– 15	1%
Reynoldsburg– 16	7%
Circleville– 17	1%
Gahanna– 18	3%
New Albany– 19	6%
Worthington– 20	3%
Other– 21	
What term defines your legal guardian?	
Biological Parent	54%
Adopted Parent	19%
Stepparent	19%
Older Sibling	3%
Other	
How many parents were in the home while (0-17)?	
0	7%
1	39%
2	52%
3	1%
Employment Status	
Were you employed before adjudication?	
No	49%
Yes	51%
What is your employment current status?	
Part-time student	3%
Full-time student	7%
Employed full-time	46%
Employed part-time	30%
Seeking Opportunities	12%
Entrepreneur/Business Owner	
Disabled/On Disability	1%
How many children do you have?	
0	57%
1	34%
2-5	9%
5+	0%
Highest Level of Education	
Less than High School – 1	9%
Some High School – 2	27%
Highschool – 3	16%
Some college – 4	21%
Associates/2-year degree –5	22%

Bachelor's Degree/4-year degree – 6	3%
Master's degree – 7	1%

Table 2
Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACEs)

ACE Questionnaire	Total N = 67 M(SD) or % 4.4(2.36)
Did a parent or other adult in the household often or very often... Push, grab, slap, or throw something at you? or Ever hit you so hard that you had marks or were injured?	
No	31%
Yes	68%
Did an adult or person at least 5 years older than you ever... Touch or fondle you or have you touch their body in a sexual way? or Attempt or actually have oral, anal, or vaginal intercourse with you?	
No	69%
Yes	31%
Did you often or very often feel that ... No one in your family loved you or thought you were important or special? or Your family didn't look out for each other, feel close to each other, or support each other?	
No	40%
Yes	60%
Did you often or very often feel that ... You didn't have enough to eat, had to wear dirty clothes, and had no one to protect you? or Your parents were too drunk or high to take care of you or take you to the doctor if you needed it?	
No	46%
Yes	54%
Were your parents ever separated or divorced?	
No	49%
Yes	51%
Did you live with anyone who was a problem drinker or alcoholic, or who used street drugs?	
No	60%
Yes	40%
Was a household member depressed or mentally ill, or did a household member attempt suicide?	
No	75%
Yes	25%

Did a parent or other adult in the household often or very often...
Swear at you, insult you, put you down, or humiliate you? or Act
in a way that made you afraid that you might be physically hurt?

No	58%
Yes	42%

Was your mother or stepmother:
Often or very often pushed, grabbed, slapped, or had something
thrown at her? or Sometimes, often, or very often kicked, bitten,
hit with a fist, or hit with something hard? or Ever repeatedly hit
over at least a few minutes or threatened with a gun or knife?

No	70%
Yes	30%

Did a household member go to prison?

No	60%
Yes	40%

Table 3

Correlations among variables (i.e., total Adverse Childhood Experience's score, employment status when encountering Juvenile Justice System, Number of parents/legal guardians in childhood household, legal guardianship obtained by biological parent, legal guardianship obtained by adopted parent, legal guardianship obtained by stepparent, legal guardianship obtained by older sibling; N=67).

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Total ACE's Score ^a	-						
2. Employment Status When Encountering JJS ^b	0.00	-					
3. # of Parents/Legal Guardians in Childhood Household ^c	-0.45****	-0.13	-				
4. Legal Guardianship Obtained by Biological Parent ^d	-0.22**	-0.10	0.27***	-			
5. Legal Guardianship Obtained by Adopted Parent ^d	0.11	0.05	-0.30***	-0.53****	-		
6. Legal Guardianship Obtained by Stepparent ^d	0.18*	0.17*	-0.10	-0.73****	-0.00	-	
7. Legal Guardianship Obtained by Older Sibling ^d	-0.22**	-0.17*	0.00	-0.01	-0.09	-0.12	-

*p<.10, **p<.05, ***p<.01, ****p<.001

^a ACE's: Adverse Childhood Experience's

^b JJS: Juvenile Justice System

^c # of Parents/Legal Guardians in Childhood Household was measured by 0 = 0; 1 = 1; 2 = 2; 3 = 3 or more

^d Legal Guardianship Obtained by was measured by 0 = No; 1 = Yes

Table 4
Adverse Childhood Experience Score

ACEs Score	N=67 M(SD) or Whole # 6.09(3.98)
0	3
1	5
2	8
3	6
4	15
5	7
6	9
7	8
8	3
9	2
10	1

Table 5

Correlations among variables (i.e., total Adverse Childhood Experience's score, age when encountering Juvenile Justice System, current age, highest education level, High/Low sentencing, length of adjudication sentencing; N =67).

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Total ACE's ^a Score	-					
2. Age when encountering the JJS ^b	-0.10	-				
3. Current age ^c	0.23**	-0.34***	-			
4. Highest Education Level ^d	0.02	-0.25**	0.45****	-		
5. High/Low Sentencing ^e	0.11	-.36***	0.23**	0.19*		
6. Length of adjudication sentencing ^f	0.19 *	-0.39*	0.27***	0.07	0.80****	-

*p<.10, **p<.05, ***p<.01, ****p<.001

^a ACE's: Adverse Childhood Experience's

^b JJS: Juvenile Justice System

^c Age was measured in years

^d Highest Education Level was measured as 1= Less than High School; 2= Some High School; 3= High School; 4= Trade School; 5= Some college; 6= Associates; 7= Bachelors; 8= Masters; 9= Ph.D

^e High/Low sentencing was measured as 0 = 1 year or less; 1= more than 1 year

^f Length of adjudication was measures as 0= 6 months or less; 1= 1year; 2= 2years; 3= 3years; 4= 4years; 5= 5year+; 6= Juvenile Life (until 21)

Table 6
Needs for Future Development

Variables	N=67 M(SD) or %
<u>Mentorship</u>	
Have you ever had a mentor and/or positive role model in your life?	N=64
No	30%
Yes	70%
What best describes how often you and your mentor communicate?	N=45
Every day	0%
Once a week	64%
Once a month	33%
One a year	2%
If you never obtained a mentor, did you ever want a mentor?	N=66
No	33%
Yes	62%
Does not apply	5%
<u>Adjudication</u>	
What was your adjudicated sentencing time for the offense you committed?	N=67
6 months or less	28%
1 year	32%
2 years	29%
3 years	6%
4 years	3%
5 years +	0%
Juvenile Life (until you are 21)	2%
<u>Relationship Status Agreeance</u>	
	N=62 3.37(.73)
Relationship with authority: I follow instructions given by the law?	
Strongly disagree	0%
Disagree	13%
Neither agree nor disagree	39%
Agree	47%
Strongly agree	2%

Relationship with school: My teachers care about my future and well-being? N=62
3.05(.97)

Strongly disagree	5%
Disagree	26%
Neither agree nor disagree	32%
Agree	34%
Strongly agree	3%

Relationship with your family: I feel my family support me? N=62
3.19(.97)

Strongly disagree	5%
Disagree	18%
Neither agree nor disagree	37%
Agree	34%
Strongly agree	6%

Table 7

Correlations among variables (i.e., total Adverse Childhood Experience's score, individualized education plan (IEP), unfair treatment from peers b/c of race at school, unfair treatment from teachers b/c of race at school, suspected of wrong b/c of race, suspended and/or expelled (N=40), number of times suspended and/or expelled, school security measures include: security guard, school security measures include: metal detectors, school security measures include: police officers; N=67).

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Total ACE's Score ^a	-									
2. Individualized Education Plan (IEP) ^b	-0.11	-								
3. Unfair Treatment from Peers b/c of Race at School ^c	-0.02	0.11	-							
4. Unfair Treatment from Teachers b/c of Race at School ^c	-0.07	-0.05	0.22**	-						
5. Suspected of Wrong b/c of Race ^d	0.04	-0.07	0.11	0.34***	-					
6. Suspended and/or Expelled ^e	-0.19*	-0.01	-0.02	-0.06	-0.04	-				
7. Number of Times Suspended and/or Expelled ^f	0.29**	-0.26	-0.31**	-0.15	-0.19	-	-			
8. School Security Measures Include Security Guard ^g	0.37***	-0.13	-0.15	-0.03	-0.25	0.03	-0.13	-		
9. School Security Measures Include Metal Detectors ^g	0.06	-0.34***	0.06	0.25**	0.32***	-0.06	0.02	-0.45****	-	
10. School Security Measures Include Police Officers ^g	0.07	0.14	0.14	-0.03	0.13	-0.24**	0.17	-0.34***	-0.21**	-

*p<.10, **p<.05, ***p<.01, ****p<.001

^a ACE's: Adverse Childhood Experience's

^b Individualized Education Plan (IEP) was measured by 0= No; 1= Yes

^c Unfair Treatment was measured by 0= No; 1= Yes

^d Suspected of Wrong because of Race was measured by 0= No; 1= Yes

^e Suspended and/or Expelled was measured by 0= No; 1= Yes

^f Number of Times Suspended and/or Expelled 1= 1 time; 2= 2 times; 3= 3 times; 4= 4 times; 5= 5 times; 0= other

^g Security Measures was measured by 0= No; 1= Yes

Table 8
School Demographics & Perception & Behavior

School Demographics

N = 60

What race was the majority of students in your schools growing up?

Caucasian	18%
African American	52%
Latino or Hispanic	18%
Native American	0%
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islanders	9%
Two or more	1%
Other/Unknown	1%

What race was the majority of teachers in your schools growing up?

Caucasian	19%
African American	31%
Latino or Hispanic	21%
Native American	1%
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islanders	13%
Two or more	1%
Other/Unknown	6%

Were you ever accused or suspected of doing something wrong because of your race/ethnicity?

No	28%
Yes	72%

Perception

Have you ever been treated unfairly by your peers because of your race/ethnicity attending school?

No	19%
Yes	81%

Have you been mistreated by teachers due to race?

No	67%
Yes	33%

Did a teacher ever give you hope for the future?

No	40%
Yes	60%

Did a teacher ever encourage you to go to college and/or trade school?

No	49%
Yes	51%

Behavior

Did you attend school every day?

No	63%
Yes	37%

Did you have an Individualized Education Plan or IEP?

No	58%
----	-----

Yes	42%
Did your school(s) obtain any of the following measures of security?	
Security Guards	61%
Metal Detectors	19%
Police Officers	48%
Others	
Have you ever been suspended and/or expelled?	
No	40%
Yes	60%
If yes to the prior question, how many times where you suspended and/or expelled?	N=40
1	18%
2	22%
3	25%
4	5%
5	3%
If you have been suspended and/or expelled, what level of education were you in the first time you were suspended and/or expelled?	N=57
1	18%
2	22%
3	25%
4	5%
5	3%
If you have been suspended and/or expelled, what level of education were you in the first time you were suspended and/or expelled?	N=57
Elementary (Kindergarten – 6 th grade)	18%
Middle School (7 th – 8 th grade)	53%
High School	30%
<u>Incarceration</u>	
Did you partake in any programs while incarcerated?	
No	62%
Yes	38%
If yes, what programs did you participate in?	
Educational/School	56%
Substance/Alcohol Abuse Treatment	28%
Mental Health Treatment	40%
Parenting Classes	16%
Library Services	24%
Recreational	28%
Other/Not Applicable	0%

Table 9.

Correlation among variable (i.e., total Adverse Childhood Experience's score, education, student race, teacher race, N=67; agree/disagree: my teachers care about my future well-being, agree/disagree: I feel my family support me, agree/disagree: I follow instructions given by the law, N=62)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Total ACE's Score ^a	-						
2. Education ^b	-0.03	-					
3. Student Race ^c	0.12	0.09	-				
4. Teacher Race ^d	0.10	0.29***	0.70****	-			
5. My Teachers Care About My Future Well-Being ^e	0.13	0.25**	-0.16	-0.06	-		
6. I feel My Family Support Me ^e	-0.05	0.13	-0.14	-0.14	0.27***	-	
7. I Follow Instructions Given by The Law ^e	0.01	0.11	-0.16	-0.27***	0.30***	0.36***	-

*p<.10, **p<.05, ***p<.01, ****p<.001

^a ACE's: Adverse Childhood Experience's

^b Highest Education Level was measured as 1= Less than High School; 2= Some High School; 3= High School; 4= Trade School; 5= Some college; 6= Associates; 7= Bachelors; 8= Masters; 9= Ph.D or higher

^c Student Race was measures as 0=white; 1=Minority Race

^d Teacher Race was measures as 0=white; 1=Minority Race

^e Rated on a 5-point scale from 1=Strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree

Table 10

Correlations among variables (i.e., total Adverse Childhood Experience's score, mentor/positive role model, frequency of mentor communication, did you want a mentor: N=?)

Variables	1	2	3	4
1. Total ACE's Score ^a	-			
2. Mentor/Positive Role Model ^b	0.26**	-		
3. Frequency of Communication with Mentor	-0.07	-	-	
4. Wanted a Mentor	-0.00	0.44****	-0.32***	-

*p<.10, **p<.05, ***p<.01, ****p<.001

^a ACE's: Adverse Childhood Experience's

^b Mentor/Positive Role Model was measured as 0= No; 1= Yes

^c Frequency of Communication with Mentor was measured as 1= Every day; 2= Once a week; 3= Once a month; 4= Once a year

^d Wanted a Mentor was measures as 0= No; 1= Yes

Table 11
The #We M.O.B One Day Virtual Pre/Post-test Survey Results

Level of Agreeance	Pre-test (N=26)	Post-Test (N=26)
I currently have positive influence(s) in my life.		
Agree	15.4%	
Neither Agree nor Disagree	65.4%	
Disagree	19.2%	
I have autonomy over my own life.		
Agree	64%	73.3%
Neither Agree nor Disagree	24%	26.7%
Disagree	12%	0%
I am hopeful that I can graduate High school without getting into trouble.		
Agree	55%	69.2%
Neither Agree nor Disagree	35%	30.8%
Disagree	10%	0%
I have what it takes to succeed in like.		
Agree	64%	60%
Neither Agree nor Disagree	36%	40%
Disagree	0%	0%
Black Males can display their vulnerable emotions in society today.		
Agree	23.1%	33.3%
Neither Agree nor Disagree	26.9%	46.7%
Disagree	50%	20%
I have good coping outlets to deal with my emotions.		
Agree		
Neither Agree nor Disagree	32%	40%
Disagree	44%	60%
	32%	0%
I obey those of authority at school, home, and the community.		
Agree	60%	66.7%
Neither Agree nor Disagree	40%	33.3%
Disagree	0%	0%
I am knowledgeable of common laws that impact juveniles		
Agree	30.8%	53.3%
Neither Agree nor Disagree	30.8%	33.3%
Disagree	38.5%	13.3%
Which Session did you enjoy best?		
Positive Life Trajectories		33%
Emotional Vulnerability		26%

What is law	40%
Would you recommend that your friends attend The We M.O.B One-Day Virtual Summit?	
Yes	100%
No	0%

References

- Adkins, T. (2015, July 13) Summit geared toward black males. *Sun Journal*.
<http://web.b.ebscohost.com.proxy.lib.ohio-state.edu/ehost/detail/detail?vid=54&sid=d1b0e913-9191-4ba9-b156-80b0abd4dd10%40pdc-vsessmgr06&bdata=JnNpdGU9ZWhvc3QtbGl2ZQ%3d%3d#db=nfh&AN=2W62442967343>
- Baglivio, M. T., Epps, N., Hardt, N. S., Huq, M. S., Sheer, A., & Swartz, K. (2014). The Prevalence of Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACE) in the Lives of Juvenile Offenders. *Journal of Juvenile Justice*, 3(2), 1-17.
https://www.prisonpolicy.org/scans/Prevalence_of_ACE.pdf
- Bacallao, M., Evans, C.B.R., Rose, R., & Smokowski, P.R. (2020). A Group Randomized Trial Of School-Based Teen Courts to Address the School to Prison Pipeline, Reduce Aggression and Violence, and Enhance School Safety in Middle and High School Students. *Journal of School Violence*, 19(4), 566-578. <https://doi-org.proxy.lib.ohio-state.edu/10.1080/15388220.2020.1780133>
- Binder, A., Geis, G., & Bruce, D. D. (1988). Juvenile delinquency: Historical, cultural, legal perspectives. New York: Macmillan.
- Big Brothers Big Sisters of Greater Cincinnati. (2020). *Together, We Are Defenders of Potential*.
<https://www.bigsforkids.org/about.html>
- Black Male Summit set at UCO. (2019 March 8). Black Male Summit set at UCO. *Journal Record*. <http://web.a.ebscohost.com.proxy.lib.ohio-state.edu/ehost/detail/detail?vid=1&sid=018ab43d-bfe7-40cc-9ad7-649d83499487%40sdc-v-sessmgr01&bdata=JnNpdGU9ZWhvc3QtbGl2ZQ%3d%3d#db=lgh&AN=L54113338JROK>
- Blumstein, A. (1995). Youth Violence, Guns, and the Illicit-Drug Industry, *Journal of Crim. L.*

& *Criminology* 86(1), 1-28.

Bornstein, D. (2011, October 6). For Children at Risk, Mentors Who Stay. *New York Times*.

<https://opinionator.blogs.nytimes.com/2011/10/06/for-children-at-risk-mentors-who-stay/?hp>

Bradshaw, K., McCarter, S., & Venkitasubramanian, K. (2019). Addressing the School-to-Prison Pipeline: Examining Micro- and Macro-Level Variables that Affect School Disengagement and Subsequent Felonies, *Journal of Social Service Research*, 46(3), 1-12. <https://doi.org/1080/01488376.2019.1575323>

Bryan, N. (2020) Shaking the bad boys: troubling the criminalization of black boys' childhood play, hegemonic white masculinity and femininity, and the school playground-to-prison pipeline, *Race Ethnicity and Education*, 23(5), 673-692.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13613324.2018.1512483>

Burton, D.L. & Kang, H.K. (2014). Effects of Racial Discrimination, Childhood Trauma, and Trauma Symptoms on Juvenile Delinquency in African American Incarcerated Youth. *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment, & Trauma*, 23, 1109-1125.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/10926771.2014.968272>

Bucchio, J. & Cheek, K. (2017, September 7). School-to-Prison Pipeline Can Be Dismantled Using Alternative Discipline Strategies. **<https://jjie.org/2017/09/07/alternative-discipline-strategies-for-dismantling-the-school-to-prison-pipeline/>**

Center for Disease Control and Prevention. (2019, April 7). *Child Abuse and Neglect Prevention*.
<https://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/childabuseandneglect/index.html>

Chan, K.L., & Chen, M. (2015). Effects of Parenting Programs on Child Maltreatment

Prevention: Meta-Analysis. *Journal of Trauma, Violence, & Abuse*, 1(17), 88-104.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838014566718>

Children Defense Fund Ohio. (2009, March). Cradle-to-Prison Pipeline Factsheet.

<https://www.childrensdefense.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/08/cradle-prison-pipeline-ohio-2009-fact-sheet.pdf>

Children Defense Fund Ohio. (2015 February). *Juvenile Justice Fact Sheet Series: School to Prison Pipeline*. <http://jjohio.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/09/School-to-Prison-Pipeline.pdf>

Children Defense Fund Ohio. (2018, April). The Cradle to Prison Pipeline: A public Health Crisis. https://www.columbus.gov/uploadedFiles/Columbus/Departments/PublicHealth/All_Programs/Health_Equity/Health_Equity_Training_Series_Folder/CPH%20Cradle%20to%20Prison%20Pipeline%20Presentation%204-27-2018%20LIVE.pdf

Farmer, S. (2010) Criminality of Black youth in inner-city schools: ‘moral panic’, moral imagination, and moral formation, *Race Ethnicity and Education*, 13(3), 367-381. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13613324.2010.500845>

Fagan, J., & Wilkinson, D. (1998). Guns, Youth Violence, and Social Identity in Inner Cities. *Crime and Justice*, 24, 105-188. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/1147584>

Fox, J.A. (1996). *Trends in Juvenile Violence: A Report to the United States Attorney General on Current and Future Rates of Juvenile Offending*. Bureau of Justice Statistics United States Department of Justice Washington, D.C

Edelman, M.W. (2007). The Cradle to Prison Pipeline: A public health crisis. *Preventing*

- Chronic Disease* 4(2). <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC1955386/>
- Elias, M. (2013). The School-to-Prison Pipeline.
<https://www.learningforjustice.org/magazine/spring-2013/the-school-to-prison-pipeline>
- Evan, C. (2019, March 26). Teacher Voice: Breaking the school-to-prison pipeline with ‘windows and mirrors’ for black boys. *The Hechinger Report*.
<https://hechingerreport.org/teacher-voice-mentoring-black-boys/>
- Grace, E.J & Nelson S.L (2019) “Tryin’ to Survive”: Black Male Students’ Understandings of the Role of Race and Racism in the School-to-Prison Pipeline, *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 18(4), 664-680. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15700763.2018.1513154>
- Groundwork Ohio. (2018, March 16). *The Impact of Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACEs) in Ohio*. <https://www.groundworkohio.org/post/2018/03/16/the-impact-of-adverse-childhood-experiences-aces-in-ohio>
- Hinton, R (2019, April 30). Opinion: Ending school-to-prison pipeline. *The Enquirer*.
<https://www.cincinnati.com/story/opinion/2019/04/30/opinion-ending-school-prison-pipeline/3615630002/>
- History of Juvenile Delinquency. (2017). *History of Juvenile Delinquency*.
<https://study.com/academy/lesson/history-of-juvenile-delinquency.html>
- Jackson, J.S., Jaggi, L.J., Mezuk, B. & Watkins, D.C. (2016). The Relationship between Trauma, Arrest, and Incarceration History among Black Americans: Findings from the National Survey of American Life. *Social Mental Health*. 6(3), 187-206.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/2156869316641730>
- Lee, C. (2016). Prison Bars on Classroom Doors. *DePaul Journal for Social Justice*. 9(2), 1-5.

- Losen, D.J., & Martinez, T.E. (2013, April 8). *Out of School and Off Track: The Overuse of Suspension in Middle and High School*. The Civil Rights Project,
<https://civilrightsproject.ucla.edu/resources/projects/center-for-civil-rights-remedies/school-to-prison-folder/federal-reports/out-of-school-and-off-track-the-overuse-of-suspensions-in-american-middle-and-high-schools>
- Lynch, M. (2017, September 21). *Black Boys in Crisis: Eliminating the School-to-Prison Pipeline*. The Advocate. <http://www.theedadvocate.org/black-boys-crisis-eliminating-school-prison-pipeline/>
- Mallett, C.A. (2017). The School-to-Prison Pipeline: Disproportionate Impact on Vulnerable Children and Adolescents. *Education and Urban Society* 49(6), 563-592. DOI: [10.1177/0013124516644053](https://doi.org/10.1177/0013124516644053)
- Mallett, C.A., Tedor, M.F. (2018). *Chapter 2: The History of Juvenile Justice and Today's Juvenile Court. Juvenile Delinquency: Pathways and Prevention*. SAGE Publication
- Murphy, D., Sacks, V. (2018, February 20). The Prevalence of Adverse Childhood Experiences, nationally, by state, and by race or ethnicity. Trends Child. <https://www.childtrends.org/publications/prevalence-adverse-childhood-%20%20experiences-nationally-state-race-ethnicity>
- National Conference of State Legislatures. (2019, November 15). *Home Visiting: Improving Outcomes for Children*. <https://www.ncsl.org/research/human-services/home-visiting-improving-outcomes-for-children635399078.aspx>
- National Research Council and Institute of Medicine. (2001). *Juvenile Crime, Juvenile Justice*. Washington, DC: The National Academics Press. DOI 10.17226/9747
- Outley, C., McKyer, E.L.J., & Smith, M. L. (2010). An Evaluation of Community Youth

- Summits. *Journal of Youth Development* 5(3).
- Ohio Organization Collaborative. (2020). *How we do the work*.
<http://www.ohorganizing.org/takeaction>
- Public Law. (1974). *Public Law 93-415- SEPT. 7, 1974*.
<https://www.govinfo.gov/content/pkg/STATUTE-88/pdf/STATUTE-88-Pg1109.pdf>
- The New Dictionary of Cultural Literacy, Third Edition. (2005) *Summit Meeting*. Dictionary.
<https://www.dictionary.com/browse/summit-meeting>
- The Sentencing Project. (2017, September 12). *Black Disparities in Youth Incarcerated*.
<https://www.sentencingproject.org/publications/black-disparities-youth-incarceration/>
- Tilson, E.C. (2018). “Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACEs).” *North Carolina Medical Journal*, 79(3), 166-169. <http://doi.org/10.18043/ncm.79.3.166>.
- Susan McCarter, Kailas Venkitasubramanian & Katherine Bradshaw (2020) Addressing the School-to-Prison Pipeline: Examining Micro- and Macro-Level Variables that Affect School Disengagement and Subsequent Felonies, *Journal of Social Service Research*, 46(3), 379-393. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01488376.2019.1575323>
- United Health Foundation. (2020). *Trend: Adverse Childhood Experiences, Ohio, United States*.
<https://www.americashealthrankings.org/explore/health-of-women-and-children/measure/ACEs/state/OH>
- United States Courts. (1967). *Facts and Case Summary – In re Gault*. Retrieved from
<https://www.uscourts.gov/educational-resources/educational-activities/facts-and-case-summary-re-gault>
- West's Encyclopedia of American Law, edition 2. (2008). *Parens Patriae*.

<https://legal-dictionary.thefreedictionary.com/parens+patriae>